

Computer Vision

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Camera Models and Calibration

1 Camera Models

- Perspective (pin-hole) camera
- Weak-perspective camera
- Comparison of camera models
- Back-projection to 3D space

2 Homography

- Homography estimation
- Non-linear estimation by minimizing geometric error

3 Camera Calibration

- Calibration by a spatial object
- Calibration using a chessboard
- Radial distortion

4 Summary

Outline

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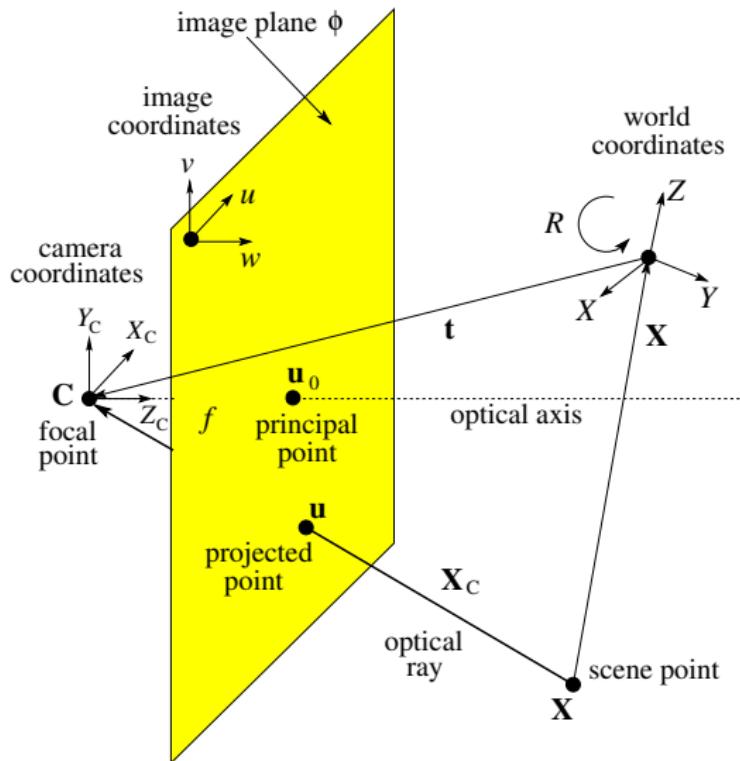
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4 Summary

Gemoetric Imaging Models

- We introduce different **geometric** models
 - General perspective camera
 - Simplified camera models
- Perspective camera model equivalent to **pin-hole camera**.
 - camera obscura
- Pin-hole camera is close to real optics
 - simple model of a thin optics
 - Physical models are significantly complicated.
- However, a perspective camera is a very good **geometric approximation**.
- We address separately the following issues:
 - radiometric properties (brightness, colors)
 - geometric distortions

Perspective camera model



Notations: coordinates and transformations

- Coordinates

$$\begin{array}{ll}\mathbf{x} = [X, Y, Z]^T & \text{world} \\ \mathbf{x}_c = [X_c, Y_c, Z_c]^T & \text{camera} \\ \mathbf{u} = [u, v]^T & \text{image plane}\end{array}$$

- Homogeneous coordinates

$$\begin{array}{ll}\mathbf{x} = [X, Y, Z, 1]^T & \text{world} \\ \mathbf{x}_c = [X_c, Y_c, Z_c, 1]^T & \text{camera} \\ \mathbf{u} = [u, v, 1]^T & \text{image plane}\end{array}$$

- Transformations

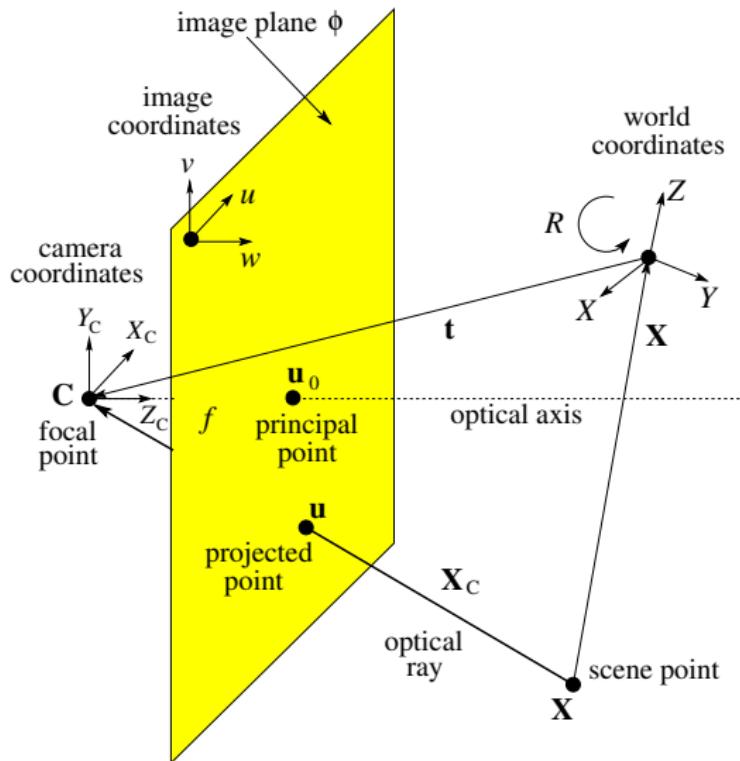
- **R**: rotation (matrix)
- **t**: translation (vector)

Notations: camera

C	ϕ	f	$\mathbf{u}_0 = [u_0, v_0]^\top$
<i>focal point</i>	<i>image plane</i>	<i>focal length</i>	<i>principal point</i>

- **C** focal point: central projection
- Optical ray: it connects a 3D point and focal point **C**
- Optical axis: Contains the focal point **C** and perpendicular to image plane ϕ
- Focal length: distance between **C** and ϕ .
- Principal point: the point in image plane where optical axis intersects ϕ

Perspective camera model



Translation and rotation

- World → Camera
- Euclidean coordinates

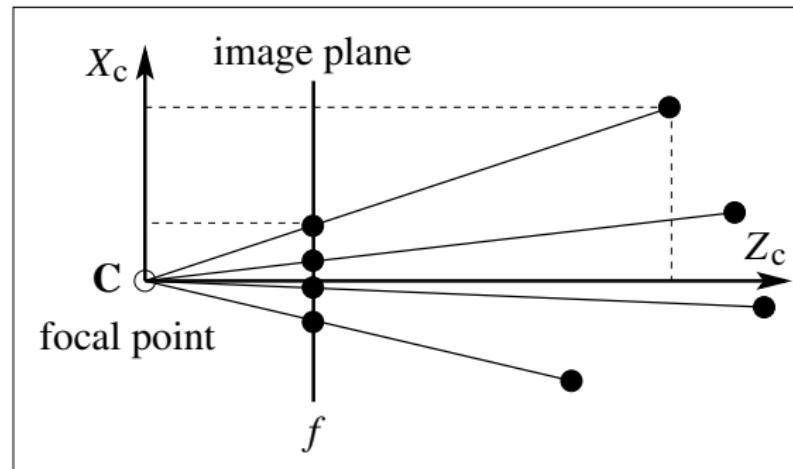
$$\mathbf{X}_c = R(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{t}) \quad (1)$$

- Homogeneous coordinates

$$\mathbf{X}_c = R [I] - \mathbf{t} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

- I is a 3×3 - **identity matrix**
- $[I] - \mathbf{t}$ is a 3×4 -matrix
- I completed by columns $-\mathbf{t}$

Projection to an image plane



$$u = \frac{fk_u}{Z_c} X_c + u_0 \quad (3)$$

$$v = \frac{fk_v}{Z_c} Y_c + v_0 \quad (4)$$

- k_u, k_v is the horizontal/vertical pixel size.
→ their unit is *pixel/length*.
- Usually, $k_u = k_v = k$.

Projection using homogeneous coordinates

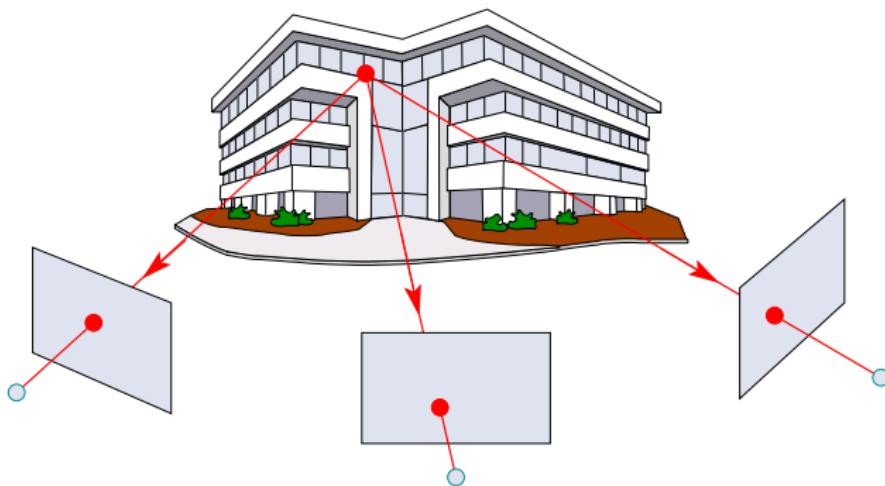
$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathbf{K} \mathbf{X}_c \quad (5)$$

- \sim homogeneous division yields scale ambiguity
- K is the (intrinsic) **calibration matrix**

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} fk_u & 0 & u_0 \\ 0 & fk_v & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

- upper triangular matrix
- consists of 5 parameters, but only four are realistic
- fk_u, fk_v, u_0, v_0

Multi-view projection of a spatial point



- Locations of the same spatial point differ in images.
- Locations should be detected and/or tracked in the images.
 - They are called *correspondences*.

Perspective camera model

- Goal: to determine the location of the projected 3D points in camera images.

$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathbf{KR}[I] - \mathbf{t} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = P \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

- $P \doteq \mathbf{KR}[I] - \mathbf{t}$ is the **projection matrix**

- consists of 11 parameters
→ 5 in K , 3 in R , another 3 in \mathbf{t} .

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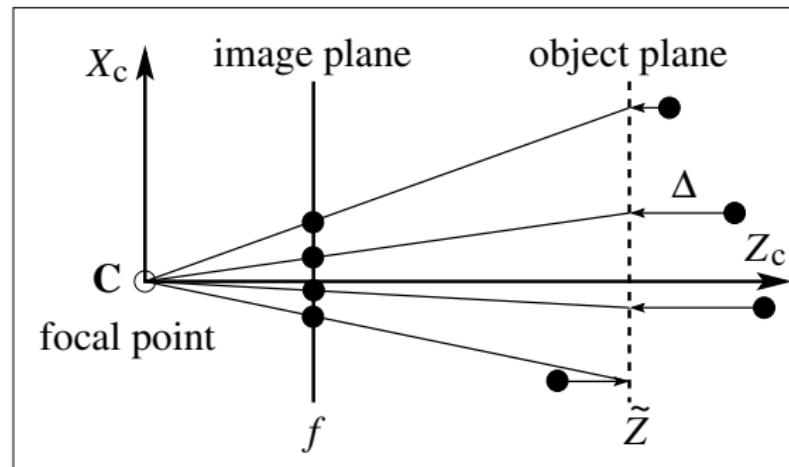
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Weak-perspective projection 1/2

- It is assumed that the object is not 'too close' from the camera
 - change in depth is significantly smaller than the camera-object distance
- Object plane is parallel to the image plane
 - it is ideal if object center contains the center of gravity of the object.
- Objects are orthogonally projected into the object plane
- Then perspective projection is applied
 - as there is no difference in depth, location of principal point does not matter.
→ for the sake of simplicity, $u_0 = v_0 = 0$.

Weak-perspective projection 2/2



$$u = \frac{fk}{\tilde{Z}_c} X_c + u_0 \quad (8)$$

$$v = \frac{fk}{\tilde{Z}_c} Y_c + v_0 \quad (9)$$

- If pixel is a square, $k_u = k_v = k$
 - It is also assumed that $Z_c \gg \Delta$
- $Z_c \approx \tilde{Z}_c$, where \tilde{Z}_c is the common depth
- scaled orthographic projection

Weak-perspective camera model 1/2

- Translation and rotation in conjunction with weak-perspective projection:

$$u = q\mathbf{r}_1^T(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{t}) + u_0 \quad (10)$$

$$v = q\mathbf{r}_2^T(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{t}) + v_0, \quad \text{where} \quad (11)$$

$$q \doteq \frac{fk}{\tilde{Z}_c}$$

- \mathbf{r}_1^T and \mathbf{r}_2^T are the first and second row vectors of rotation matrix R .
- \mathbf{u}_0 represents offset: $\rightarrow u_0 = v_0 = 0$

$$u = q\mathbf{r}_1^T(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{t}) \quad (12)$$

$$v = q\mathbf{r}_2^T(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{t}) \quad (13)$$

Weak-perspective camera model 2/2

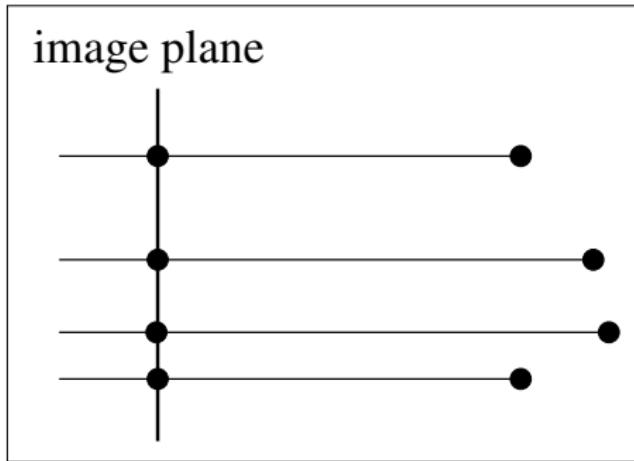
- Projection can be written with the help of a weak-perspective camera matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = [M|\mathbf{b}] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{where} \quad (14)$$

$$M \doteq q \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1^T \\ \mathbf{r}_2^T \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} \doteq - \begin{bmatrix} q\mathbf{r}_1^T \mathbf{t} \\ q\mathbf{r}_2^T \mathbf{t} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Model has 6 degree of freedom (DoF)
 - if $k_u \neq k_v$, DOF=7
- There is no scale ambiguity.

orthographic projection



- Orthogonal projection can be applied if object
 - is far from the camera
 - depth is relatively static
- Model has 5 degree of freedom (DoF)
 - R, t_1, t_2

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Affine camera

- **General affine camera**

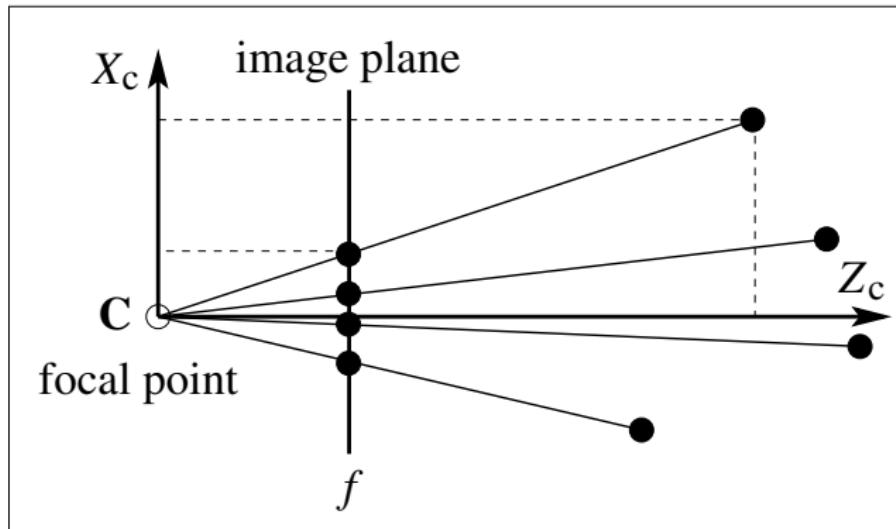
$$\mathbf{u} = M_{2 \times 3} \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{t}$$

- 8 degrees of freedom
- $M_{2 \times 3}$ is a 2×3 matrix with rank two
- Hierarchy of affine cameras
 - general affine camera
 - ↓
 - more constraints,
 - less DoFs

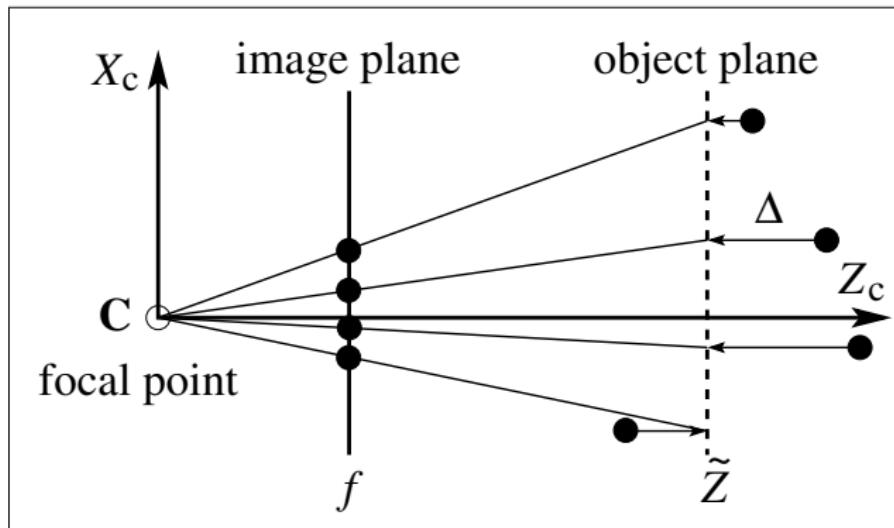
Hierarchy of affine camera models

- **Weak-perspective projection**
 - 7 degrees of freedom ($k_u \neq k_v$)
- **Scaled orthographic projection**
 - six degrees of freedom
 - orthogonal projection + isotropic scale
 - if $k_u = k_v$, it is a scaled orthographic projection
- **Orthogonal projection**
 - five degrees of freedom

Perspective projection



Weak-perspective projection



Applicability of weak-perspective projection

- Projection error of weak-perspective projection

$$\mathbf{x}_c^{\text{weak}} - \mathbf{x}_c^{\text{proj}} = \frac{\Delta}{\tilde{Z}_c} \mathbf{x}_c^{\text{proj}}$$

- with respect to real location
 - Δ : distance between point and object plane
 - \tilde{Z}_c mean of depth values

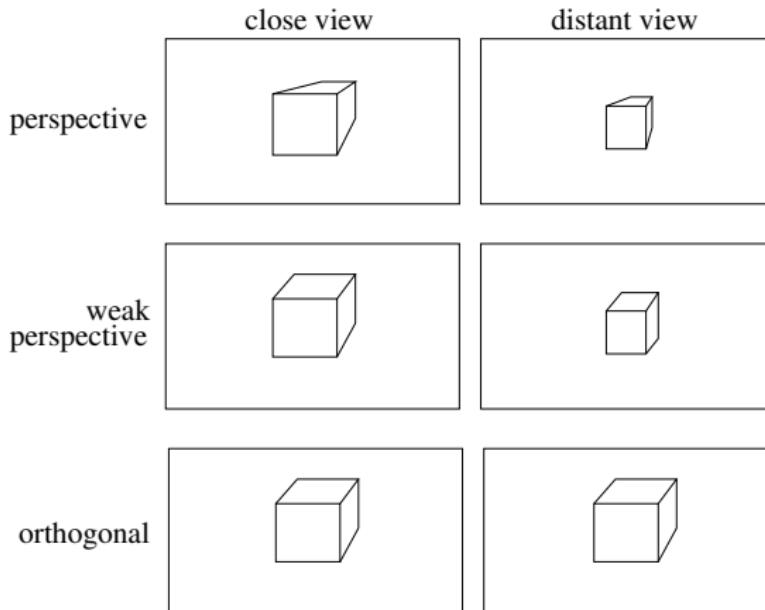
→ Weak-perspective projection applicable if

- $\Delta \ll \tilde{Z}_c$

Benefits & disadvantages of weak-perspective projection

- Advantages over real perspective projection
 - no scale ambiguity
 - less parameters to be estimated
 - accuracy of estimation can be better
 - simpler
 - closed-form solutions exist for several problems
- Disadvantages
 - It is only an approximation of real projection
 - less accurate if conditions do not hold

Comparison of the projection models



effect	perspective	weak-persp.	orthogonal
change in sizes	yes	yes	no
persp. distortion	yes	no	no

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Back-projection of a point 1/2

- Projection

$$u = \frac{fk_u}{Z_c} X_c + u_0$$
$$v = \frac{fk_v}{Z_c} Y_c + v_0$$

- Back projection by expressing spatial coordinates:

$$X_c = \frac{Z_c}{fk_u} (u - u_0)$$
$$Y_c = \frac{Z_c}{fk_v} (v - v_0)$$
$$Z_c = Z_c$$

Back-projection of a point 2/2

- Matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_c \\ Y_c \\ Z_c \end{bmatrix} = Z_c \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{fk_u} & 0 & -\frac{u_0}{fk_u} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{fk_v} & -\frac{v_0}{fk_v} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = Z_c K^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

- where the calibration matrix is as follows:

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} fk_u & 0 & u_0 \\ 0 & fk_v & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- a 3D point is ambiguous w.r.t. depth
 → a point in image represents a line in 3D space

Back projection by homogeneous coordinates

- Projection of 3D point to an image plane:

$$\mathbf{u} = P\mathbf{X}$$

- Back-projection yields a line:

$$\mathbf{X}(\lambda) = (1 - \lambda)P^+\mathbf{u} + \lambda\mathbf{C}$$

- It is a line written by a parameter λ
- P^+ is the pseudo-inverse of P
 - $PP^+ = I$ (I : identity matrix)
 - $P^+ = P^T (PP^T)^{-1}$
- The line contains
 - point $P^+\mathbf{u}$ ($\lambda = 0$)
 - Focal point \mathbf{C} of camera
 - \mathbf{C} is the null-vector of matrix P

Back projection and triangulation

- To estimate a 3D points
 - at least two calibrated cameras
 - and two corresponding points in the images are required.
- Estimation of 3D coordinates is called **triangulation** in computer vision.

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Homography

- General, $(n + 1)$ -dimension case

- P^n : n -dimensional space
- $R^{(n+1)}$ extended space of P^n
- transformation $P^n \rightarrow P^d$ is a homography, it is a linear transformation $R^{(n+1)}$
- It is applied using homogeneous coordinates:

$$\mathbf{u}' \sim H\mathbf{u}$$

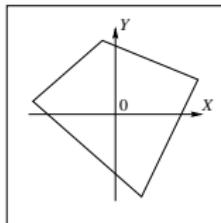
→ H is a non-singular $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$ matrix

- 3D case: $n + 1 = 3$

- P^2 is a plane in R^3
- A homography is a projective transformation between two planes
- it is unequivocal
- Lines remain lines after homographic transformation.

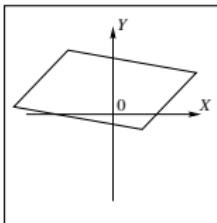
Special cases of a homography

projective



$$\det H \neq 0$$

affine

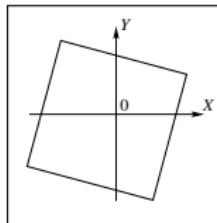


$$H = \begin{bmatrix} A & \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det A \neq 0$$

$$\det R = 1$$

similarity



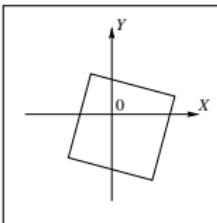
$$H = \begin{bmatrix} sR & -R\mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R^T R = E$$

$$\det R = 1$$

$$s > 0$$

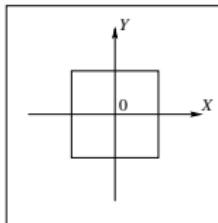
metric



$$H = \begin{bmatrix} R & -R\mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R^T R = E$$

identity



$$H = E$$

Plane-plane homography (1)

- A planar pattern is given in 3D space.
- Two different images are taken:

$$\mathbf{u} = \lambda_1 \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{X} \quad \mathbf{u}' = \lambda_2 \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{X}$$

- Origin and orientation of coordinate system can be freely selected
 - Let plane $Z = 0$ be the plane of the pattern
 - Then an arbitrary point within the pattern is $\mathbf{X}_i = [X_i, Y_i, 0, 1]^T$.
- Projection is more simple:

$$\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_1 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1 \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_i \quad \mathbf{u}'_i = \lambda_2 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2 \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_i$$

- where $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_i = [X_i, Y_i, 1]^T$. Matrices $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2$ is the original \mathbf{P}_1 and \mathbf{P}_2 matrices, removing the third column.

Application of homography (1)

- $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2$ are 3×3 square matrices
 - They are invertible.
- Spatial points:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_1} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1^{-1} \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{X} \quad \frac{1}{\lambda_2} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2^{-1} \mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{X}$$

- Image coordinates can be computed from each other:

$$\mathbf{u}' = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1^{-1} \mathbf{u}$$

- Transformation is given by the 3×3 matrix $\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_2 \tilde{\mathbf{P}}_1^{-1}$.
 - This is a homography.

Application of homography (1) : transformation of planar patterns



Application of homography (1/b) : Inverse Perspective Mapping

- For vision system of autonomous vehicles, the road is one of the main focuses of attention.
 - The road is a planar surface.
 - It can be rectified by a homography.
- Objects can be more accurately detected in rectified images.
 - The distances can also be measured and visualized.

Application of homography (1/b) : Inverse Perspective Mapping



Left: Original image.

Right: Rectified image.

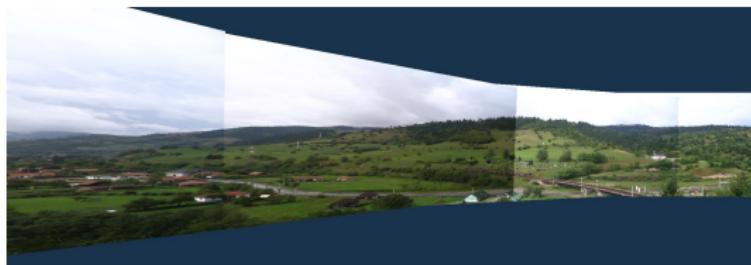
Application of homography (2)

- A 3D world is given, two images are taken from the same focal point. Only camera orientations differ.
 - Input for a panoramic image.
- The origin is selected as the common focal points of the images.
- Camera projection matrices: $\mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{K}_1[\mathbf{R}_1|0]$ and $\mathbf{P}_2 = \mathbf{K}_2[\mathbf{R}_2|0]$
- Projection: $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{K}[\mathbf{R}|0][X, Y, Z, 1]^T$. Homogeneous (last) coordinate does not effect result.
- Transformation between two corresponding image locations:

$$\mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{K}_2 \mathbf{R}_2 \mathbf{R}_1^T \mathbf{K}_1^{-1} \mathbf{u}$$

- Transformation is represented by 3×3 matrix $\mathbf{K}_2 \mathbf{R}_2 \mathbf{R}_1^T \mathbf{K}_1^{-1}$.
 - This is a homography as well.

Application of homography (2) : panoramic imaging



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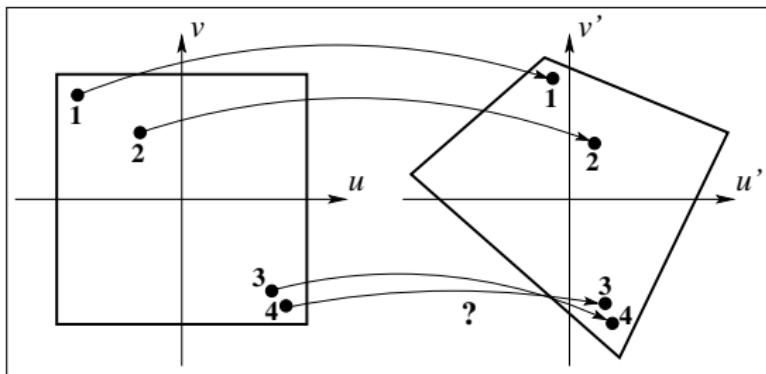
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Point-correspondence-based homography estimation



- m point correspondences are given. $\mathbf{u}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{u}'_i$:
 $\mathbf{u}'_i \sim H\mathbf{u}_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$
- Task: estimate H
 - at least $m = n + 2$ correspondences are required
 - planar homography: at least four points needed.
 - For more points, problem is over-determined.
- In case of outliers: robust estimation
 - Robustification requires more correspondences.

Homography written by point locations

$$\alpha \begin{bmatrix} u' \\ v' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\ h_{31} & h_{32} & h_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\alpha \neq 0$ is an unknown scale factor.

Transformation yields

$$u' = \frac{h_{11}u + h_{12}v + h_{13}}{h_{31}u + h_{32}v + h_{33}} = \frac{\mathbf{h}_1^T \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{h}_3^T \mathbf{u}}, \quad (16)$$

$$v' = \frac{h_{21}u + h_{22}v + h_{23}}{h_{31}u + h_{32}v + h_{33}} = \frac{\mathbf{h}_2^T \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{h}_3^T \mathbf{u}}, \quad (17)$$

where \mathbf{h}_i is the i-th row of matrix \mathbf{H} .

Linear estimation of planar homography 1/2

Equations are multiplied by the common denominator

$$(h_{31}u + h_{32}v + h_{33})u' = h_{11}u + h_{12}v + h_{13} \quad (18)$$

$$(h_{31}u + h_{32}v + h_{33})v' = h_{21}u + h_{22}v + h_{23} \quad (19)$$

For the i -th point, two homogeneous equations are obtained as
 $A_i \mathbf{h} = 0$, where

$$A_i = \begin{bmatrix} u_i & v_i & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -u_i u'_i & -v_i u'_i & -u'_i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & u_i & v_i & 1 & -u_i v'_i & -v_i v'_i & -v'_i \end{bmatrix}, \quad (20)$$

$$\mathbf{h} = [h_{11}, h_{12}, h_{13}, h_{21}, h_{22}, h_{23}, h_{31}, h_{32}, h_{33}]^T \quad (21)$$

For all points, $A\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{0}$ linear system of equations should be solved,
 where

$$A = [A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m]^T$$

Linear estimation of planar homography 2/2

- Trivial solution $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{0}$ is discarded
 - \mathbf{h} can be determined up to a scale
→ the norm is fixed: $\|\mathbf{h}\| = 1$
- If there are $m = 4$ correspondences; or $m > 4$, but data are noisy-free
 - if rank of A equals 8, exact solution can be obtained.
- If $m > 4$ and data are contaminated
 - only an estimate can be computed,
 - by minimizing $\|A\mathbf{h}\|$, subject to $\|\mathbf{h}\| = 1$.
 - Optimal solution in the least squares sense is the eigenvalue of $A^T A$ corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue.

Properties of linear estimation 1/2

- Linear method
 - unequivocal, clear solution
- Low computational demand
 - fast execution
- The cost function of the estimation is determined by ϵ

$$\epsilon = \|A\mathbf{h}\|$$

- ϵ -is an algebraic distance
 - no direct geometric meaning
 - minimization of geometric distance(s) preferred

Properties of linear estimation 2/2

- Not robust
 - noisy correspondences
 - Works well if there are no outliers
 - one outlier can destroy the good result
 - (*breakdown point*) is very low
- Due to numerical computation, data normalization required
 - elements in coefficient should be in the same order of magnitude
 - translation: origo should be at the center of gravity
 - scale: spread should be set to $\sqrt{2}$
- Numerical optimization is usually applied, linear method yields initial value

Data normalization

- Coordinate system can be freely selected.
- Original homography: $[u_2, v_2, 1]^T \sim \mathbf{H}[u_1, v_1, 1]^T$
 - Modified coordinates: $[u'_1, v'_1, 1]^T = \mathbf{T}_1[u_1, v_1, 1]^T$ and $[u'_2, v'_2, 1]^T = \mathbf{T}_2[u_2, v_2, 1]^T$
 - where \mathbf{T}_1 and \mathbf{T}_2 are affine transformations (translation + scale)
- Projection by the modified homography:
 $[u'_2, v'_2, 1]^T \sim \mathbf{H}'[u'_1, v'_1, 1]^T$
- After substitution: $\mathbf{T}_2[u_2, v_2, 1]^T \sim \mathbf{H}'\mathbf{T}_1[u_1, v_1, 1]^T$
- Then: (multiplication by \mathbf{T}_2^{-1} from the left):
 $[u_2, v_2, 1]^T \sim \mathbf{T}_2^{-1}\mathbf{H}'\mathbf{T}_1[u_1, v_1, 1]^T$
- Thus, $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{T}_2^{-1}\mathbf{H}'\mathbf{T}_1$ or $\mathbf{H}' = \mathbf{T}_2\mathbf{H}\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}$:

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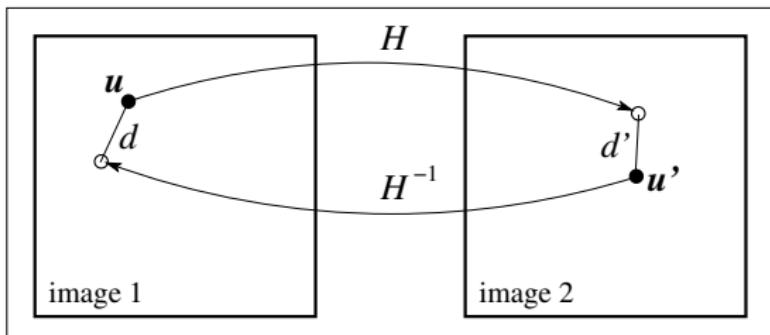
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Minimization of projection error



- Projection error

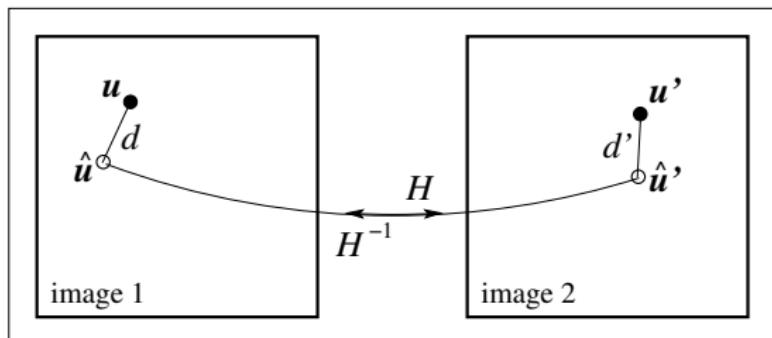
$$\sum_i [d(\mathbf{u}'_i, H\mathbf{u}_i)]^2$$

- Symmetric projection error

$$\sum_i \left([d(\mathbf{u}'_i, H\mathbf{u}_i)]^2 + [d(\mathbf{u}_i, H^{-1}\mathbf{u}'_i)]^2 \right)$$

- Refinement of homography \mathbf{H} : 9 variables, 8 DoFs

Minimization of reprojection error



- If both \mathbf{H} and \mathbf{u}_i are refined: $9 + 2m$ variable
- Homography $\hat{\mathbf{H}}$ and points $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i, \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_i$ should be refined by minimizing the re-projection error

$$\sum_i \left([d(\mathbf{u}_i, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_i)]^2 + [d(\mathbf{u}'_i, \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_i)]^2 \right) \text{ subject to } \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_i = \hat{\mathbf{H}}\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i \quad \forall i$$

Non-linear estimation of a homography

- Cost function is non-convex
 - Global minimum cannot be guaranteed
 - Good initial value required
- Two-step approach
 - 1 Linear estimation first,
 - 2 then numerical optimization, e.g. Levenberg-Marquardt applied
- For outlier handling, robustification is required
 - outlier filtering, robust statistics
 - RANSAC, M-estimation, median, ...

Properties of non-linear estimation

- Benefits

- Geometric error (meaningful) can be applied
- Accurate
- Can be straightforwardly robustified

- Disadvantages

- Numerical methods → local minima can exist
- Results depend on initial values
- Higher time demand

Outline

1 Camera Models

- Perspective (pin-hole) camera
- Weak-perspective camera
- Comparison of camera models
- Back-projection to 3D space

2 Homography

- Homography estimation
- Non-linear estimation by minimizing geometric error

3 Camera Calibration

- Calibration by a spatial object
- Calibration using a chessboard
- Radial distortion

4 Summary

Goals of Camera calibration 1/2

- Camera calibration is an important pre-step of 3D reconstruction
 - Estimation of intrinsic parameters
 - Extrinsic parameters (position, orientation)
- Two main types of calibration
 - Photogrammetric calibration, separate process
 - Auto-calibration: joint estimation of camera parameters + 3D scenes

Goals of Camera calibration 2/2

- Better camera parameters → better 3D vision
 - Stereo (two-view) calibration is possible if cameras are pre-calibrated
- Calibration requires known positions of
 - Feature points and
 - Lines
- **Auto-calibration**
 - More difficult
 - Less accurate
 - Applied if pre-calibration is impossible

→ This course does not deal with auto-calibration.

Camera calibration with calibration object

- Know 3D scene required
 - partially or fully known geometry
 - detectable features on the images
 - manual intervention can be applied
- Partially-known geometry
 - parallel lines
 - perpendicular edges
 - e.g. a building
- Known objects
 - static 3D point cloud
 - e.g. calibration cube
 - or calibration chessboard

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Calibration by a spatial object

- Given m point correspondence between 3D scene and images plane $\mathbf{X}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{u}_i$: $\mathbf{u}_i \sim P\mathbf{X}_i, i = 1, \dots, m$
- Task: estimation of $P = KR[I] - t$.
 - At least 6 correspondences required
 - Over-determined system
- Wrong correspondence → robust methods
 - Many correspondences → outlier detection

Calibration by Cartesian coordinates

$$\alpha \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} & P_{14} \\ P_{21} & P_{22} & P_{23} & P_{24} \\ P_{31} & P_{32} & P_{33} & P_{34} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\alpha \neq 0$ is an arbitrary scale factor.

Equations can be rewritten as

$$u = \frac{P_{11}X + P_{12}Y + P_{13}Z + P_{14}}{P_{31}X + P_{32}Y + P_{33}Z + P_{34}} = \frac{\mathbf{p}_1^T \mathbf{X}}{\mathbf{p}_3^T \mathbf{X}}, \quad (22)$$

$$v = \frac{P_{21}X + P_{22}Y + P_{23}Z + P_{24}}{P_{31}X + P_{32}Y + P_{33}Z + P_{34}} = \frac{\mathbf{p}_2^T \mathbf{X}}{\mathbf{p}_3^T \mathbf{X}}, \quad (23)$$

where \mathbf{p}_i is the i -th row of projection matrix P .

Linear estimation of a projection matrix 1/2

Equations are multiplied by the common denominator:

$$(P_{31}X + P_{32}Y + P_{33}Z + P_{34})u = P_{11}X + P_{12}Y + P_{13}Z + P_{14} \quad (24)$$

$$(P_{31}X + P_{32}Y + P_{33}Z + P_{34})v = P_{21}X + P_{22}Y + P_{23}Z + P_{24} \quad (25)$$

For the i -th point, $A_i\mathbf{p} = 0$, where

$$A_i = \begin{bmatrix} X_i & Y_i & Z_i & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -u_iX_i & -u_iY_i & -u_iZ_i & -u_i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & X_i & Y_i & Z_i & 1 & -v_iX_i & -v_iY_i & -v_iZ_i & -v_i \end{bmatrix} \quad (26)$$

$$\mathbf{p} = [P_{11}, P_{12}, P_{13}, P_{14}, P_{21}, P_{22}, P_{23}, P_{24}, P_{31}, P_{32}, P_{33}, P_{34}]^T \quad (27)$$

For all the points, a homogeneous linear system of equation obtained in the form $A\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$ where

$$A = [A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m]^T$$

Linear estimation of a projection matrix 2/2

- $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$ trivial solution omitted.
 - estimation obtained up to a scale
 - norm is fixed as $\|\mathbf{p}\| = 1$
- For noiseless case
 - rank of \mathbf{A} is 11, perfect solution is obtained
- For over-determined and noisy case,
 - only estimation can be computed
 - minimization of $\|\mathbf{Ap}\|$ subject to: $\|\mathbf{p}\| = 1$.
 - optimal solution if the eigenvector of $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ corresponding to the least eigenvalue.
 - solution can be obtained by Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) as well.

Decomposition of a projection matrix

- Structure of a projection matrix:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{KR} [\mathbf{I}] - \mathbf{t} \quad (28)$$

- First three columns of matrix \mathbf{P} : $\mathbf{P}_{3 \times 3} = \mathbf{KR}$
 - Decomposition can be obtained by RQ - decomposition
 - It decomposes \mathbf{P} into product of an upper triangular and an orthonormal matrices
- Last column of matrix \mathbf{P} :

$$\mathbf{p}_4 = -\mathbf{K}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{t} \quad (29)$$

- Thus,

$$\mathbf{t} = -\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{p}_4 \quad (30)$$

Data normalization

- Point coordinates can be normalized similarly to homography estimation
- Original transformation: $[u, v, 1]^T \sim \mathbf{P}[X, Y, Z, 1]^T$
- Normalizing transformations: $[u', v', 1]^T = \mathbf{T}_{2D}[u, v, 1]^T$ and $[X', Y', Z', 1]^T = \mathbf{T}_{3D}[X, Y, Z, 1]^T$
 - \mathbf{T}_{2D} 2D transformation(s) (size: 3×3)
 - \mathbf{T}_{3D} 3D transformation(s) (size: 4×4)
- Projection by normalized coordinates:
 $[u', v', 1]^T \sim \mathbf{P}'[X', Y', Z', 1]^T$
- Solution applied normalized coordinates:
 - $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{T}_{2D}^{-1}\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{T}_{3D}$ or $\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{T}_{2D}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{T}_{3D}^{-1}$.

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- **Calibration using a chessboard**
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4 Summary

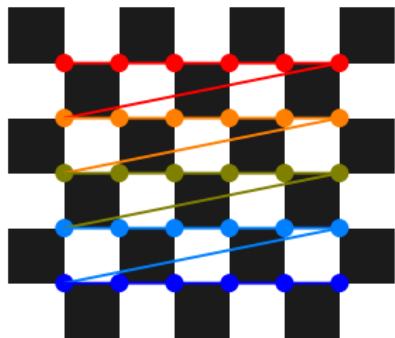
Chessboard-based camera calibration

- Z. Zhang, Microsoft Research, 1998.
- Easy and accurate method
- Frequently-used
- Non-perspective distortion can be handled
- Chessboard can be easily printed
- Efficient implementations available, e.g. in OpenCV
- See demos on Youtube
- Disadvantages
 - Multiple images required
 - Avoid checked patterns on shirts :(

Box-based camera calibration

- R.Y. Tsai, 1986.
- Non-perspective distortion can be handled
- Less user-friendly than chessboard-based one
 - not frequently used
- Hard to manufacture a precise calibration box
 - especially in large dimensions
 - it is difficult to calibrate a camera using a small cube
- Benefits
 - One static image is satisfactory

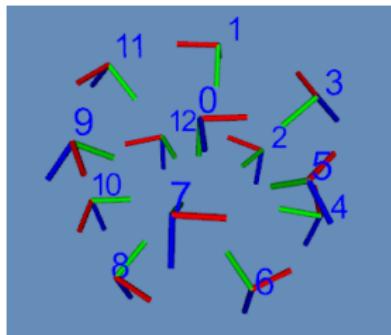
Calibration of a camera-system using chessboards



Detected corners



Chessboard



Extrinsic camera params

- Chessboard patterns are assymetric → corner detection unambiguous.
- Orientations of chessboard in images should differ.
- Extrinsic parameters can also be retrieved.

Chessboard-based calibration

- Main steps of calibration
 - Homography exists between the calibration plane and an image
 - Camera intrinsics in matrix K can be computed from homographies
- World coordinate is fixed to the board
 - Axis Z is perpendicular to the board $\rightarrow Z = 0$ is the board plane

$$\alpha \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{K} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 & \mathbf{r}_2 & \mathbf{t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{H} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where} \quad (31)$$

- \mathbf{r}_1 and \mathbf{r}_2 are the first two rows of rotation \mathbf{R}
- $\mathbf{H} \doteq \mathbf{K} [\mathbf{r}_1 \ \mathbf{r}_2 \ \mathbf{t}]$
- Task is to (1) estimate \mathbf{H} , then (2) compute intrinsic matrix \mathbf{K}

Chessboard-based calibration

- Corners of chessboard fields can be easily detected.
 - chessboard \rightarrow image correspondences $\mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{u}_i$ used
 - at least 4 required
 - More correspondences needed for contaminated data
 - subpixel corner detection \rightarrow improved accuracy
 - intersections of lines
- Estimation of homography \mathbf{H}
 - linear estimation minimizing algebraic error
 - non-linear estimation considering geometric error
- Homography \mathbf{H} can be estimated up to an unknown scale
- Let $\mathbf{h}_1, \mathbf{h}_2, \mathbf{h}_3$ denote the columns of \mathbf{H} : $\mathbf{H} \doteq [\mathbf{h}_1 \quad \mathbf{h}_2 \quad \mathbf{h}_3]$

Computation of intrinsic parameters 1/3

- For homography matrix, the following equations are valid:

$$[\mathbf{h}_1 \quad \mathbf{h}_2 \quad \mathbf{h}_3] \sim \mathbf{K} [\mathbf{r}_1 \quad \mathbf{r}_2 \quad \mathbf{t}]$$

$$[\mathbf{h}_1 \quad \mathbf{h}_2] \sim \mathbf{K} [\mathbf{r}_1 \quad \mathbf{r}_2]$$

$$\mathbf{K}^{-1} [\mathbf{h}_1 \quad \mathbf{h}_2] \sim [\mathbf{r}_1 \quad \mathbf{r}_2]$$

- \mathbf{r}_1 and \mathbf{r}_2 are orthonormal, therefore

$$\mathbf{r}_1^T \mathbf{r}_2 = \mathbf{h}_1^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{h}_2 = 0, \quad (32)$$

$$\|\mathbf{r}_1\|^2 - \|\mathbf{r}_2\|^2 = \mathbf{h}_1^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{h}_1 - \mathbf{h}_2^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{h}_2 = 0, \quad (33)$$

- where $\mathbf{S} \doteq \mathbf{K}^{-T} \mathbf{K}^{-1}$, $\mathbf{K}^{-T} \doteq (\mathbf{K}^{-1})^T$
- This is a linear problem w.r.t. the elements of \mathbf{S} . \rightarrow They can be optimally estimated.

Computation of intrinsic parameters 2/3

- Elements of calibration matrix \mathbf{K} :

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} fk_u & s & u_0 \\ 0 & fk_v & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathbf{S} = \lambda \mathbf{K}^{-T} \mathbf{K}^{-1}$

$$\frac{\mathbf{S}}{\lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{(fk_u)^2} & -\frac{s}{(fk_u)^2 fk_v} & \frac{u_0 fk_v - v_0 s}{(fk_u)^2 fk_v} \\ -\frac{s}{(fk_u)^2 fk_v} & \frac{s^2}{(fk_u)^2 (fk_v)^2} + \frac{1}{(fk_v)^2} & \frac{-s(u_0 fk_v - v_0 s)}{(fk_u)^2 (fk_v)^2} + \frac{v_0}{(fk_v)^2} \\ \frac{u_0 fk_v - v_0 s}{(fk_u)^2 fk_v} & \frac{-s(u_0 fk_v - v_0 s)}{(fk_u)^2 (fk_v)^2} + \frac{v_0}{(fk_v)^2} & 1 + \frac{v_0^2}{fk_v^2} + \frac{(u_0 fk_v - v_0 s)^2}{(fk_u)^2 (fk_v)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Matrix \mathbf{S} has 5 parameters to be estimated: fk_u, fk_v, u_0, v_0, s
- Each chessboard image yields 2 equations \rightarrow at least 3 images required
- More images \rightarrow overdetermined system
- Robustification also requires many images

Computation of intrinsic parameters 3/3

- Matrix \mathbf{S} → closed-form solution for intrinsic parameters(\mathbf{K})

$$v_0 = \frac{(S_{11}S_{23} - S_{21}S_{13})}{S_{11}S_{22} - S_{12}^2}$$

$$\lambda = S_{33} - \frac{S_{13}^2 + v_0(S_{12}S_{13} - S_{11}S_{23})}{S_{11}}$$

$$fk_u = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{S_{11}}}$$

$$fk_v = \sqrt{\lambda S_{11} / (S_{11}S_{22} - S_{12}^2)}$$

$$s = -S_{12}fk_u^2fk_v/\lambda$$

$$u_0 = sv_0/fk_v - S_{13}fk_v^2/\lambda$$

- Check: homework...

Computation of extrinsic parameters

$$[\mathbf{r}_1 \quad \mathbf{r}_2 \quad \mathbf{t}] = \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{H} \quad (34)$$

$$\mathbf{r}_3 = \mathbf{r}_1 \times \mathbf{r}_2 \quad (35)$$

- For detailed description: Z. Zhang, Technical Report
- Implementation available in OpenCV, C++
- Matlab toolbox also exists
 - <http://sourceforge.net/projects/opencvlibrary/>

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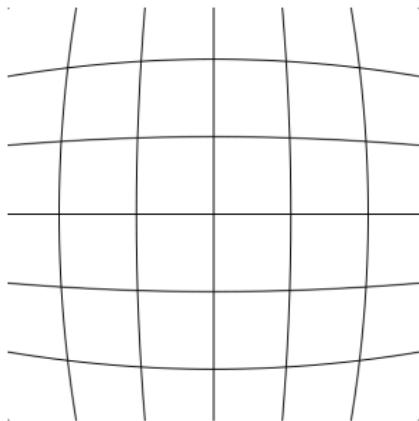
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4 Summary

Radial distortion

- Non-perspective distortion is common for cheap or wide FoV (field of view) lenses
- Perspective model is only an approximation for real projection
 - e.g. projection of a line should be a straight line due to perspectivity
→ This is not always true for real cameras
- Usually, type of distortion is **radial distortion**
 - Two subtypes: **Barrel/pillow** distortion
→ barrel is more frequent
- Radial distortion has to be undistorted
 - Especially, when accurate 3D reconstruction should be achieved.
- Undistortion is usual part of camera calibration
 - It is included e.g. in OpenCV's calibration, in final numerical optimization

Radial distortion



barrell



pillow

- Straight lines become curves
- It is usual for wide FoV (small focal length)

Source of images: Wikipedia

Correction of radial distortion

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{u}_c + L(r)(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u}_c), \quad \text{ahol} \quad (36)$$

- \mathbf{u} : measured, $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$: corrected coordinates
- \mathbf{u}_c center of distortion
 - it is usually assumed that \mathbf{u}_c coincides with principal point \mathbf{u}_0 .
- $L(r)$ is a cubic polynomial in r^2

$$L(r) = 1 + \kappa_1 r^2 + \kappa_2 r^4 + \kappa_3 r^6$$

- $r = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u}_c\|$ is the distance from \mathbf{u}_c .
- $L(r)$ is a Taylor approximation of the real distortion function
 - $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3$ are small real numbers
- Model is built in the non-linear homography estimation
 - Parameters $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3$ are estimated based on 2D geometric error

OpenCV: tangential distortion

$$\hat{x} = y_c + L_1(x, y)(x - x_c)$$

$$\hat{y} = y_c + L_2(x, y)(y - y_c)$$

- $L_{\{1,2\}}(x, y)$ are products of polynomials

$$L_1(x, y) = 1 + 2p_1xy + p_2(r^2 + 2x^2)$$

$$L_2(x, y) = 1 + 2p_2xy + p_1(r^2 + 2y^2)$$

- $r = x^2 + y^2$ is the distance from the optical axis
- p_1, p_2 are small real numbers
- It is not mandatory to use all tangential parameters.
- Tangential distortion does complete and not substitutes radial distortion.

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References

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